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# An Analysis of Some of the Sociological Problems Involved in Guidance

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An Analysis of Some of the Sociological

Problems Involved in Guidance

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BY

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THESIS

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Terry H. Portman

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## Introduction

A look around the public schools reveals that the children who are in attendance normally bring with them many different ideas of right and wrong, good and bad, correct forms of expression, and the like. The discussion which follows considers the reasons for many of these differences, the problems created thereby, and the ways in which school personnel look upon the arising situations.

Research into some of the objectives of guidance is summarized in Chapter I. The remainder of the paper considers sociology as a discipline, the influence of the economic system, class background, and the influence of the family as it is related to education.

The paper ends in a discussion of the writer's study in which some of the implications of the sociological analysis are tested through a questionnaire administered to guidance counselors.

## CHAPTER I

### DEFINITION AND OBJECTIVES OF GUIDANCE

The word guidance has been used with so many varied implications that it is incumbent upon anyone employing the term to clarify its meaning. Guidance is an educational construct, the origin of which is generally traced to Boston shortly after the turn of the present century. The father of modern guidance is recognized as Frank Parsons, who founded the Vocational Bureau in Boston in 1908.<sup>1</sup> There were, however, other forces in operation prior to Parson's innovation. Binet had begun work in measurement; psychological laboratories had been established in Europe and in the United States. Social case work had its beginnings in the late 1880s. The three essential elements of guidance which Parsons developed included: (1) self-understanding on the part of the client; (2) knowledge of the requirements and conditions of success; (3) true reasoning concerning the relationship between the two.<sup>2</sup> Apparently the time had arrived for the implementation of harmony between individuals and their environment.<sup>3</sup>

Miller has defined guidance as "that part of the total educational process which is concerned with helping the individual make plans and decisions to implement his development in accordance with his own

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<sup>1</sup>Gail F. Farwell and Herman J. Peters, eds., Guidance Readings for Counselors (Chicago, 1960), pp. 2-4.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

emerging life pattern."<sup>4</sup> Furthermore, guidance should function to influence this emerging pattern in such a way that the final pattern achieved will be the one most beneficial to the individual and to society. In addition to the guidance process described above, guidance may be thought of as a program of services which are in turn a part of the category of personnel services.

The evolutionary development of guidance has broadened services beyond private agencies and has enabled them to permeate educational institutions at all levels. Though a part of the educational process, guidance is quite distinct from administration, curriculum, or instruction. Certainly, guidance must be implemented by some organizational plan in which the roles of the various persons are defined and their functions coordinated.<sup>5</sup> However, this analysis will be primarily concerned with theoretical issues of the guidance process.

Probing more deeply now into the objectives of guidance, an analysis conducted by James J. Cribbin of New York University has aptly summarized the underlying aims of guidance as follows:

1. To develop student initiative, responsibility, and self-guidance.
2. To develop in the student the ability to choose his own goals wisely.
3. To know one's self, to know the school, and to be known by the school.
4. To anticipate, avoid, and prevent crises from arising in the lives of the student.
5. To help the student adjust satisfactorily to school and to life.
6. To help the student to recognize, understand, meet and solve his problems.
7. To assist the student in making wise choices, plans, and interpretations at critical points in his life.
8. To help the student acquire the insights and techniques which are necessary to enable him to solve his own future problems.

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<sup>4</sup>Carroll H. Miller, Foundations of Guidance (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1961), p. 13.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid.

9. To assist teachers to teach more effectively.
10. To help administrators to administer more effectively by making a maximum contribution to the total school program.
11. To develop students who will participate in and contribute to the democratic way of life.
12. Miscellaneous objectives: assisting the home, helping the community, building ethical character, and fostering better human relations and international understanding.<sup>6</sup>

In arriving at the implications evident in these aims, every individual should be given the proper insight into the unique and dynamic aspects of his personality; within him should be engendered an awareness of the interdependence of his psychological functions and interaction with the environment. Guidance cannot be limited to its intellectual and vocational spheres--however important these may appear to be--but should consider all aspects of personality. In fact, ability to do a thorough, scientific appraisal of personality should be a common aspect of every counselor's repertoire of techniques.

Social influences surrounding and affecting the individual must be taken into account at all times in the "field" which constitutes his effective arena of action.<sup>7</sup> The individual must be educated in the area of adjustment of personal aspirations to the social realities and obligations of the day. Social factors and moral values should also receive attention in the guidance situation.

In terms of needs, a guidance program is designed to fulfill the following:

1. The need for adjustment in academic, personal, vocational or avocational problem-situations requiring professional, individualized aid in making immediate and suitable adjustments at problem points.
2. The need for orientation toward life objectives in problems of career planning, educational programming, and direction toward

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<sup>6</sup>Farwell and Peters, op. cit., p. 85.

<sup>7</sup>Robert Mendry Mathewson, Guidance Policy and Practice (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1955), p. 38.

long term personal aims and values requiring help in evaluating factors involved in future action.

3. The need for the development of personal effectiveness and power of self-direction requiring personal assistance in achieving self-insight and control, and in discovering and undergoing educational experiences essential to personal growth.<sup>8</sup>

In fulfilling these needs and achieving these aims, effort must be concentrated in the areas of social, educational, and vocational effectiveness. The following are examples of matters which might be considered within the area of social effectiveness: (1) extra-curricular activities; (2) need of spending money; (3) relations with the opposite sex; (4) home and school relations. Educational effectiveness might involve the following: (1) educational planning; (2) study of interests; (3) study of abilities; (4) study of aptitudes; (5) study of habits; (6) insight into the causes of poor learning; (7) special consideration of both the superior and less than average student.<sup>9</sup> Furthermore, programs must be fitted to the growth level of the child, interests must be developed, courses must be interpreted to parents, and insight must be provided in educational problems. Vocational guidance concerns itself with the matter of job satisfaction, along with a multitude of other problems.

In attempting to meet the staggering problems in these areas, the employing of well trained personnel is highly important. In addition to specialized courses in guidance and counseling, the counselor's background should include knowledge of history, anthropology, sociology, philosophy, psychology, and economics.

Following is a list of eight of the major roles of the guidance

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<sup>8</sup>Ibid., p. 45.

<sup>9</sup>Charles R. Foster, Guidance for Today's Schools (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1957), pp. 30-35.

counselor:

1. To counsel with individuals and with groups.
2. To work as an advisor to teachers.
3. To provide school-wide guidance services.
4. To give leadership to the guidance program.
5. To provide testing services and analysis.
6. To provide record services and interpretations.
7. To provide educational and occupational information.
8. To know the guidance resources of the school and the community.<sup>10</sup>

In looking back upon the fifty years of guidance, one sees some remarkable progress; however, progress has been disappointing in several ways. Many schools and their faculties still have not accepted guidance as a matter of central importance.

But guidance has been in the process of developing a professional training and practice program. A scientific approach has been instituted whereby psychometry, applied psychology, and sociology are utilized. Both teachers and specialists have been emphasized with specialization now creating a comprehensive organization of pupil personnel workers.

However, unity and coherence remain as goals to be sought after; opposing camps still exist. A suitable ending to this chapter is provided by quoting James B. Conant:

It would not be too much to say that on the success or failure of our guidance program hangs, in all probability, the success or failure of our public education system.<sup>11</sup>

<sup>10</sup> Ibid.

<sup>11</sup> Farwell and Peters, op. cit. pp. 2-4.

## CHAPTER II

### RELATIONSHIP OF SOCIOLOGY TO EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES

Sociology may be defined as the science which studies the fundamental laws and aspects of social relations and institutions. Sociology will, therefore, exert paramount influence upon the means employed to reach the desired ends of any educational program.

Through the years, educational sociology has evolved as a specialized field in which concentrated study of sociological principles and their influence upon education has occurred. Educational sociology, more formally defined, is regarded as the "application of sociological knowledge and techniques to educational problems in the field of human relations and well-being."<sup>12</sup> Sociology within a guidance program might concern itself with the "study of the interaction of the individual and his cultural environment, which includes other individuals, social groups and patterns of behavior."<sup>13</sup>

Emphasis upon the social processes in education will be a recurring thread throughout this paper. As a social process, education has been a part of the social order as long as societies have existed. Education will always accompany the existence of any society; certain information must be passed on to future generations.

In an increasingly complex society, such as that of the United

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<sup>12</sup>William E. Cole and Clyde B. Moore, Sociology in Educational Practice (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1952), pp. 2-3.

<sup>13</sup>Ibid.

States, the development of the school as an institution has been accompanied by specialization. Guidance has become one ramification of this specialization.

What social needs have specialized programs in guidance attempted to fill? Within our democracy, there has come about a general need for aiding free individuals in their adjustment to changing environmental conditions and opportunities, not only for their own good, but also for that of society in general. Individuals and groups who possess continuing problems may create conditions which will be a detriment to the entire society. Specialized counseling, for those who cannot anticipate unhappiness as a result of unarticulated and capriciously fragmented educational programs, seems highly desirable in a free society. The areas of communal living will demand continued attention if optimum social adjustments are to be attained. In addition, society, with its disintegrating concensus of common values, is faced with confusion in meeting the following demands:

1. The continuous requirement that occupational talents and tasks be matched as effectively as possible for optimum social efficiency and individual happiness.
2. The constant need for maintenance of satisfactory social relationships in neighborhood and community to the end that the demands of citizenship are fulfilled and the social stability assured.
3. The imperative of maintaining desirable family relationships from the standpoint of social continuity as well as individual adjustment.
4. The need for satisfactory relationships between individual interests and available facilities in the field of recreation and occupational pursuit.<sup>14</sup>

The entire school, as well as the guidance division, should be oriented toward these problems and make a conscious attempt to solve them.

Having made a general analysis of the relationship of sociology

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<sup>14</sup> Mathewson, op. cit., p. 14.



to education, two aspects of the American culture will be described as practical examples of sociological problems which have a direct influence upon successful guidance as a part of educational programs.

The first influence concerns contradictions in the American culture which create frustration for many members of society. The following is a list of some of the contradictions:

1. Individualism is the secret of America's greatness, but no man should live for himself alone.
2. The thing that distinguishes man from the beasts is the fact that he is rational; therefore, man can be trusted, if let alone, to guide his conduct wisely, but as every smart politician knows, you can't sit and wait for people to make up their minds.
3. Democracy, as in America, is the ultimate form of living together, but one cannot always, as any businessman knows, leave things to popular vote.
4. Everyone should try to be successful; the kind of person you are is more important than how successful you are.
5. The family is the basic institution and the sacred core of our national honor. Business is important to national welfare, and other institutions must be subservient to it.
6. Religion and the finer things in life are the things all of us are really working for. A man owes it to himself to make as much money as he can.
7. We should welcome progress and new things; do not try to change things too fast; the old ways are the best.
8. Hard work and thrift are the ways to get ahead. However, you had better know the right people too.

9. Honesty is the best policy. Business is business and a businessman would be a fool if he did not cover his hand.
10. America is a land of unlimited opportunity. Of course, not everyone can be boss and factories cannot give jobs if there are none to give.
11. Capital and laborers are partners. It is a bad policy to pay higher wages than you have to.
12. Education is fine. Practical men get things done.
13. Science is a fine thing and our future depends on it. Science has no right to interfere with business and other fundamental institutions. Use science, but do not let it upset things.
14. Children are a blessing. You should not have more children than you can afford.
15. Women are the finest of God's creatures. Women are not very practical and are usually inferior to men in reasoning ability.
16. Patriotism and public service are fine things; of course a man must look out for himself.
17. Our judicial system insures justice to every man, rich or poor. A man is a fool not to hire the best lawyer he can afford.
18. Poverty is deplorable and should be abolished. There never has been enough to go around, and the Bible tells us that the poor you always have with you.
19. No man deserves to have what he has not worked for; you cannot let people starve.<sup>15</sup>

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<sup>15</sup>B. Othaniel Smith, J. Harlan Shores, and William O. Stanley, Fundamentals of Curriculum Development (New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World Incorporated, 1957), pp. 64-66.

Though their acceptance will vary from one social class to another, these statements have equal weight in our society. The aims of guidance outlined in Chapter I, with few exceptions, are interwoven with the contradictions just listed. Until a precise consensus regarding values is achieved, guidance, as a specialized entity and as a teacher technique, must function to limit the pernicious influences of these contradictions upon the individual. This calls for objective discussion and analysis of current social problems in the classroom, along with careful weighing of alternatives in the counseling situation.

A second example of a sociological problem with which the schools must deal involves the acculturation of people of differing ethnic and cultural backgrounds to the American ways. This is exemplified in New York City where there are already 300,000 Puerto Ricans who are increasing at the rate of 25,000 per year. The major cultural problems of Puerto Ricans include mastering the English language, accepting color prejudice, and adjusting to poor living conditions.<sup>16</sup> School and community coordinators have been found helpful. As a result of our highly mobile world, these people exemplify the problems of migrant peoples everywhere. The school is the agency of society which most often has to deal with problems created by this and similar phenomena. Guidance, of course, will be concerned with some of the unique problems of this group.

These summaries were presented as examples of crucial sociological problems which face education and which in turn will challenge guidance.

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<sup>16</sup>Edwin R. Carr and Blaine E. Merriam, Education and the Social Order (New York: Rinehart and Co., 1957), p. 295.

### CHAPTER III

#### SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC BASIS OF PROBLEMS

If one is to analyze accurately the sociological factors in our culture, he should be aware of the cultural and economic transition which has occurred since 1900. Fundamental changes have appeared in American society. If one were to seek a single phase with which to identify these changes, the growth of industrialism would probably be as good as any. These changes have been fostered by the increased importance of money and credit, the growth of the cities, the concentration of control, and the "revolution" in management.

Associated with the changes in the economy have been the fundamental social developments which have been accompanied by dislocations in the American pattern of living, feelings, attitudes, and outlooks.<sup>17</sup> Dislocations were the result of agrarian mores being superimposed on an economy which was essentially industrial and becoming more this way with each year. Rising impersonality was associated with both the industrial bureaucracies and the change from rural to urban living. The "old rules" no longer hold in this new and impersonal society. A two dimensional problem has been created for parents: (1) it has become increasingly difficult for parents to communicate the morals to their children; (2) in a society which is undergoing such astronomical changes,

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<sup>17</sup>Miller, op. cit., pp. 24-33.

parents are not even certain what the proper conduct should be. The results of this confusion and lack of communication are still uncertain; however, it would appear to be a detriment to the individuals affected.

Moreover, great numbers of barriers have appeared between various "in groups" in our society. Stratification has thus appeared in every segment of society from the church to the groups associated with the business of earning a living.

Furthermore, ownership of capital has also been involved in a transition. It has been removed from the hands of a few wealthy citizens and has been transferred to hundreds and sometimes thousands of stockholders scattered in every state. Frequently the stockholders neither know nor have any interest in the people of the city in which the industry is located. Whyte has pointed to the rise of a "social ethic" which now makes "morally legitimate the pressures of society against the individual." Whyte vividly describes the plight of the "organization man"--that rather ruthless individual caught somewhere in no-man's land between top management and routine work, whether in industry, government, a corporation, a clinic, a church, or an academic hierarchy.<sup>18</sup> Though these criticisms have usually been aimed toward business, those in teacher training programs are aware of the obeissance paid to group methods in education.

The term culture is being used in reference to the total way of life of the American people. The culture has developed a variety of historical roots and is a complex of cultural systems. Among these systems may be distinguished a general American cultural system, ethnic

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<sup>18</sup>Ibid.

group sub-cultures, social class sub-cultures, and rural and urban sub-cultures. From each of these sub-cultural units has evolved a system of values. Two general constellations of American values still exist, however: (1) those centering about democracy, examples of which include individualism, equality, and liberty; (2) those centering about technology and progress.<sup>19</sup> Stress and conflict accompany the individual's attempt to find himself in this plurality of cultures in both public and private institutions. Mere establishment of values is often beyond the grasp of the young mind.

Problems enough face one who remains in a particular stratum of society and attempts to build a life there. However, since upward mobility in the social system is possible and many times desirable, the individual finds it necessary to make numerous adjustments as he moves from one segment of society to another. Acquiring values different from those into which one is born is often a difficult and conflicting process. Old values must be broken down and new values must be learned. In the second phase of this process, the individual may be in need of reward for the new learnings.

Problems of vocational selection have been reinforced by the sociological fact that a hierarchy of occupational prestige has persisted for over a quarter of a century. Highest prestige has been ascribed to proprietary, managerial, and professional occupations; lowest prestige has been attached to unskilled and semi-skilled occupations with skilled and white collar occupations falling somewhere in the middle.<sup>20</sup> This hierarchy would presumably be a reflection of

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<sup>19</sup>Ibid.

<sup>20</sup>Ibid., p. 117.

the social and economic structure.

The major factor, in the writer's opinion, which reinforces all of the sociological problems is the inequality fostered by the economic system. No one will question the fact that the standard of living has risen since 1900; poverty and inequality, however, have hardly been eliminated. The economic analysis of poverty in this chapter will be based on an article entitled "Our Invisible Poor," written by Dwight MacDonald, and appearing in The New Yorker of January 19, 1963. In this rigorous analysis, MacDonald reviews several pertinent books including Galbraith's The Affluent Society and Harrington's The Other America: Poverty in the United States.

Within the category of poverty should be included those who are denied the minimum levels of health, housing, food, and education that our present stage of scientific advancement specifies as necessary for life as it is lived in the United States. In monetary terms, the Bureau of Labor sets this figure at \$4000 for a family of four and \$2000 for an individual living alone. All kinds of income--including food grown on farms--are included.<sup>21</sup>

Applying this definition, Mr. Harrington estimates that between 40,000,000 and 50,000,000 people are living in poverty today. This is not to say that they are merely below the level of comfortable living--they are hard put to acquire adequate food and other mere necessities. Granted, this is extremely hard to believe in America of 1963. Somewhat the same situation exists in England where people have been

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<sup>21</sup> Dwight MacDonald, "Our Invisible Poor," The New Yorker, (January 19, 1963), p. 92.

blinded to the existense of mass poverty following the Labor Party's post-1945 welfare legislation.

Though disagreement exists as to how many people are really living in poverty in the United States, mainly due to the confusion of statistics regarding low income students, all the recent studies agree that poverty is still a mass phenomenon in America. One of the lowest estimates appears in the University of Michigan study entitled Income and Welfare which states that "poor families are one-fifth of the Nation's population."<sup>22</sup>

It is becoming increasingly difficult for society to see citizens who are living below the poverty line.

The poor are increasingly slipping out of the very experience and consciousness of the nation. If the middle class never did like ugliness and poverty, it was at least aware of them. "Across the tracks" was not a very long way to go. . . Now the American city has been transformed. The poor still inhabit the miserable housing in the central area, but they are increasingly isolated from contact with, or sight of, anybody else. . . Living out in the suburbs, it is easy to assume that ours is, indeed, an affluent society. . .

Clothes make the poor invisible too: America has the best-dressed poverty the world has ever known. . . It is much easier in the United States to be decently dressed than it is to be decently housed, fed, or doctored. . .

Many of the poor are the wrong age to be seen. A good number of them are sixty-five years of age or better; an even larger number are under eighteen. . .

And finally, the poor are politically invisible. . . They are without lobbies of their own; they put forward no legislative program. As a group, they are atomized. They have no face; they have no voice. . . Only the social agencies have a really direct involvement with the other America, and they are without any great political power. . .

Forty to fifty million people are becoming increasingly invisible.<sup>23</sup>

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<sup>22</sup>Ibid., pp. 91-92.

<sup>23</sup>Ibid., p. 96.



One analysis indicates that the heads of poor families should have averaged \$2,204 in 1959, but, in fact, they averaged only \$932. Mr. Harrington believed the discrepancies to have resulted from psychological dependence, lack of motivation or intelligence, and a variety of other factors not studied.<sup>24</sup> Children who are reared under these conditions can hardly be expected to meet the expectations of the normal public school which is oriented toward the middle class.

Furthermore, these people are different in ways other than those cited above--Mr. Harrington demonstrates:

Emotional upset is one of the main forms of the vicious circle of impoverishment. The structure of the society is hostile to these people. The poor tend to become pessimistic and depressed; they seek immediate gratification instead of saving; they act out.

Once this mood, this unarticulated philosophy becomes a fact, society can change, the recession can end, and yet there is no motive for movement. The depression has become internalized. The middle class looks upon this process and sees "lazy" people who "just don't want to get ahead." People who are much too sensitive to demand of cripples that they run races ask of the poor that they get up and act just like everyone else in the society.

The poor are not like everyone else. . . They think and feel differently; they look upon a different America than the middle class looks upon.<sup>25</sup>

Without help from society, youngsters from these environments seldom achieve their share of success.

More differences regarding the poor were uncovered in a study of mental health in New Haven, Connecticut by Hollingshead, entitled Social Class and Mental Illness. He found that from the rich through the decently paid workers the rate of mental illness is about the same--an average of 573 per 100,000. However, in the lowest economic fifth

<sup>24</sup>Ibid., p. 100.

<sup>25</sup>Ibid., p. 104.

of the population, the rate shoots up to 1,659 per 100,000. The classification of the mental illness also warrants notation. In the upper four classes the majority were classified as neurotics. However, in the lowest fifth the "treated" illnesses were 90% psychotic.<sup>26</sup>

This material and psychological deprivation is creating youngsters whose problems are so unique that special training and care is required of school personnel who handle them. Unless schools provide such personnel, these children may be left to reproduce the poverty of their environments.

America likes to think of itself as a country in which social class does not exist. What wishful thinking, for there are few social organizations even open to the poverty stricken families. The poor person who might desire membership is afraid of not having enough money, enough education, or enough confidence in articulating ideas. Consequently, he avoids social organizations; the consequences for a child in such an environment could be such as to create a unique adjustment problem.

Statistics will be employed to illustrate the plight of the poor in comparing their relative position today with 1935. In 1935, 68% of the people earned \$4000 or less and received 35% of the National Income; today, 23% of the people earn \$4000 or less, but receive only 7% of the National Income. Conclusion: poor people are now poorer as a group than they were in 1935. In addition, people with incomes of \$2000 or less numbered 7,500,000 in 1929; by 1947, thanks to the war economy, the number had decreased to 4,000,000. However, six years later, in 1953, when the economy had begun to slow down, there were still 3,300,000 and seven years later, in 1960, "there had been no further reduction."<sup>27</sup>

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<sup>26</sup>Ibid., p. 26.

<sup>27</sup>Ibid., p. 114.

Thus, in the last fifteen years, bottom dogs have remained on the bottom. Optimum operation of our country could very well depend upon our ability to tap every intellectual resource available. We are losing many able individuals in the "quicksand" of this plain of poverty. Until education is developed to meet their needs, rags to riches will remain a fantasy; reality, to these uneducated children, is more like rags to rags. They will only perpetuate the poverty of their parents.

Moreover, 11,000,000 of the poor are under eighteen and are starting life in a condition of "inherited poverty."<sup>28</sup> Though many children from poor families show intellectual promise, they are hindered in their educational development because of the absence of encouragement from friends, relatives, or parents. One source states that, of the top 16% of our high school graduates, only half go on to college. More staggering is the realization of what these young people will perpetuate in the way of poverty as they grow older and attempt to face the stultifying task of making a living with no marketable skills. This is exemplified in Chicago where a survey has shown that "more than half of the more than 225,000 Cook County residents who are on relief are functionally illiterate." Lack of basic educational skills among relief recipients is counted as the chief reason why Cook County has to spend \$16,500,000 per month on relief payments.<sup>29</sup>

Not surprising is the fact that these people have no confidence in their abilities to get out of the slums. People who were slum dwellers of several decades ago at least had a vision of hope which was reinforced by the economic structure of the day. In contrast today, half of the

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<sup>28</sup>Ibid., p. 123.

<sup>29</sup>Ibid., p. 129.

estimated 30,000,000 people who live in urban slums are believed to be second generation residents. Most disturbing is the fact that they lack the hope of former generations.<sup>30</sup>

Society as a whole loses too, as we now have a shortage of teachers, nurses, doctors, scientists, executives, and technicians. This is unfortunate, not only in consideration of the happiness that these people could be given with proper education, but also because society loses the services of these 4,500,000 unemployables. Wasted humans, as are many of the poor in our society, the solution to which is complicated and expensive, presents a challenging sociological problem.

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<sup>30</sup>Ibid., p. 130.

## CHAPTER IV

### DIFFERENCES IN CLASS BACKGROUND

The unfavorable environments which result from diverse economic backgrounds should be readily apparent as indicated in Chapter III. The purpose in this chapter will be to describe the various class strata in our society and to briefly indicate general factors pertinent to education as a result of these strata.

Cognizance of the influence of social class upon the individual existed at the time of Aristotle. He advised that one class was poor, the other rich, and the third "mean" and that the latter was best. According to Aristotle, "he who greatly excels in strength, beauty, birth, or wealth or is very poor, very weak, or very disgraced cannot follow rational principles." The two extreme groups, Aristotle tells us, are likely to become criminal. Those who have too much good fortune are neither willing nor able to submit to authority. They are never reared to learn the habit of obedience and will commit "roguery." "Evil begins at home," says the philosopher. We are also told that only the middle class can be relied upon to secure the state and to exhibit a stable and permanent influence. Aristotle also commented that children are treated in a differential manner depending on their socio-economic class.<sup>31</sup>

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<sup>31</sup>Gerhard J. Folk, "The Role of Social Class Differences and Horizontal Mobility in the Etiology of Aggression," The Journal of Educational Sociology, (September, 1959), pp. 1-10.

But before investigating further the influences of social class, it would be well to delineate the apparent social structure in the United States.

The American social class system, according to Havighurst's classifications, consists of three classes or subdivisions. There is a large working class consisting of some 60% of the population, most of whom work with their hands. Above this group is a substantial middle class of white collar workers with almost 40% of the population. At the top, in terms of social status, is a small upper class of 2% or 3% who have the highest social prestige and the greatest wealth. When the middle and working classes are divided, a five class system appears and is identified as follows: upper class, 2%; upper-middle class, 8%; lower-middle class, 30%; upper-lower class, 40%; and the lower-lower class, 20%.<sup>32</sup>

Having outlined the structure of social classes, it would be well to look at its component parts. If a local aristocracy exists, the upper-upper class will probably be its primary constituent. They have "background," and live in large, tradition surrounded homes in restricted areas. Though many men of leisure exist, proprietary or managerial occupations are prevalent. Late marriage is common; social participation is frequent both before and after marriage. Children may attend the public schools, but are eventually sent to preparatory schools and to "good" colleges. However, one does not find the pressure for college graduation here that he finds in the middle class. The upper-upper class people see themselves as the best, they see the upper-middle

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<sup>32</sup>Nelson B. Henry, ed., Social Forces Influencing American Education (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1961), LX, Part II, pp. 120-121.

class as "nice respectable people," the lower-middle as "good people," but "just nobody," and the rest as the poorer classes.<sup>33</sup>

The lower-upper classes are the new rich rather than the old rich. Though their wealth may be equal to or greater than the upper-upper class, their family background is inadequate to support participation with the upper-upper class. Occupational pursuits tend to fall in the proprietary and professional categories. Homes are large or medium sized and located in "good" areas. They marry less strictly within their own class than does the upper-upper class. Some lower-upper class children will attend public schools and take college preparatory courses, but parents usually try to send them to the "right" private schools. As in the upper-upper class situation, activities which might call for the arrest of a lower class person are often handled informally within the lower-upper class. This class minimizes differences between itself and the upper-upper class, denies differences between itself and the upper-middle class, but refers to the two lower classes as the poorer classes.<sup>34</sup>

When the upper middle class is analyzed, a tremendous number of civic leaders, Rotary Club members, lodge people, board of education members and the like are found to exist. Access to the exclusive social clubs is not available; however, church attendance here is more regular than in the upper classes though more arrests often take place. Occupational classifications include small business owners or managers of larger businesses, professional workers, skilled workers, and sometimes semi-skilled workers. White collar occupations predominate throughout

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<sup>33</sup>Miller, op. cit., pp. 87-88.

<sup>34</sup>Ibid.

the classifications. Though the highest percentage of college graduates is found here, marriage age is usually a year or two below that of the upper classes. Association with the lower-middle class takes place freely and the lower classes are thought of as just the working classes.<sup>35</sup>

Those classified as lower-middle class usually work as clerks, semi-skilled workers, shopkeepers, skilled workers, with possibly a few as professionals. Geographical location of the home is normally in a good living area but not an exclusive one. Here is found the largest percentage of church goers and most are also ardent joiners of the clubs available to them. These people commonly graduate from high school, but college graduation is infrequent. Class consciousness and publicity seeking are evident; this class sometimes refers to itself as "we poor folks." Those in the higher classes are apt to be thought of as there mainly because they have money. Extreme resentment is expressed toward the upper-middle class.<sup>36</sup>

As the upper-lower class is studied, one finds occupations consisting of factory, mine, mill, and farm labor jobs. Workers may be skilled, semi-skilled, or unskilled. Less than half own their small dwellings which range from moderate to poor states of repair. Early marriage, culminating in large and unstable families, prevails. Throughout the older generation the educational level is usually the upper elementary grades, while the younger generation usually receives two years of high school. Some will graduate. The upper-lower class is less active in churches and much less active in fraternal groups than the middle classes. Leisure is commonly spent at home or at the movies.

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<sup>35</sup>Ibid., pp. 88-90.

<sup>36</sup>Ibid.



The rate of arrests is greater here than in the higher classes. This class sharply differentiates itself from the lower-lower class which it regards as "loafers" and as the "criminal class." The higher classes are thought of as a society based upon wealth.<sup>37</sup>

Within the lower-lower class lie most of the semi-skilled and unskilled workers. Work is often seasonal and relief loads for the unemployed are staggering. Few homes located in these areas, which are usually designated as "shantytown," "dogpatch," and the like, are owned. Little privacy, few books, and few decent pieces of furniture are provided. Much instability exists among families and often results in broken homes. Education usually ceases when the legal age for dropping out is reached. Few join churches, but many high prestige churches are not even open to these people. The rate of arrests is high in this group which is isolated from organized social and civic activities. They resent the upward mobile people in the class just above them, as they feel those people are snobbish.<sup>38</sup>

This illustrates the tremendous differences in the backgrounds of our public school children. Few upper class children enter public schools unless they are located in a "hybrid" area where the upper class population is great enough to create a private school atmosphere in the public school.

However, the public schools must deal with the vast majority of the middle and lower class children. Teachers are faced with a tremendous conflict of values in students who come from such divergent backgrounds. One author has stated that social class influences children

<sup>37</sup>Ibid., pp. 90-91

<sup>38</sup>Ibid.

in all of the following ways: (1) the early socialization of the child; (2) motivation; (3) aggression patterns; (4) test performance.<sup>39</sup> Adequate answers to the problems created by these differences are seldom the result of teachers expounding a classless idealism. Continued lack of opportunity and participation for some students will be the logical result.

Additional insight may be gained into these differences by observing the rudiments of the rearing procedure in the various classes. Within the lower classes children are many times regarded as the price which must be paid for sexual relations. As a result, a rigid parent-child relationship exists within the home, but one which permits less supervision and concern about activities outside the home. The lower class child may carry an unacceptable language into the middle class oriented school. Controls, of course, fall more heavily upon the lower class child than anyone else. Having come from an under-privileged environment, the lower class child frequently sees no advantage in conforming to the middle class value structure. The school personnel tend to be harsh and rebuking while minimizing rewards for lower class children.<sup>40</sup> Social activities of the lower class are termed "residual" by Boussard.<sup>41</sup> In essence, he is saying that, since the lower class student cannot afford participation with the majority of the student body, he logically does those things which are left for him to do.

Within the middle class, however, an entirely different situation exists. Parents of middle class children are normally oriented toward upward mobility. Supervision by parents usually entails withdrawal of

<sup>39</sup>Cole and Moore, op. cit., pp. 277-278.

<sup>40</sup>Folk, op. cit., p. 110.

<sup>41</sup>Florence Greenhoe Robbins, Educational Sociology (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1953), pp. 101-111.

approval if the child's behavior does not conform to middle class standards. Moreover, the middle class child has the advantage of carrying the language of his teacher into the classroom. The more favorable position of the middle class child is evident. However, the middle class children are faced with problems in their geographic mobility. Many go to college with no thought of ever returning to their home communities. Often they face problems when they attempt to tie their loyalties to a larger group.

Little mention of the upper classes, with their superior verbal development and college oriented backgrounds will be made. However, problems are in store for the upper class youngster whose abilities or ambitions do not match the expectations of his parents.

In the 1958 study by Havighurst and his colleagues in the Midwest community of "River City," it appeared that the kind of an education a child gets depends much upon the social position of his family.<sup>42</sup> Furthermore, in the "Yankee City" study, the lower-middle class and lower class children seemed to be learning the things which would help them to adjust to the social position in which they were born.<sup>43</sup>

The laws of biology have been known to transcend the social position of parents. Guidance is concerned with the preparation and placement of each individual in the field in which he can perform most fruitfully. Many communities present a challenge to education--since mobility is often a myth to many children in the lower social classes. Mobility in itself is probably important, but most crucial is society's loss of able people when equal opportunity is not available.

In the writer's opinion, social stigmas of many communities often

<sup>42</sup>Henry, op. cit., pp. 124-125.

<sup>43</sup>Carr and Merrens, op. cit., p. 295.

hinder the achievement of educational aims. Guidance may be the fulcrum from which reform may be implemented.

## CHAPTER V

### SOCIAL-PERSONAL PROBLEMS

Many problems with which counselors are confronted are rooted in social or family conflicts. Students may not wish to reveal the real problem because of family loyalty or some type of guilt. In dealing with a psychological problem which has its roots anchored in a sociological conflict, it is quite difficult to secure the correct information needed for successful counseling. The counselor must distinguish between overt and hidden problems and between symptoms and causes. Anti-social behavior, poor school work, and juvenile delinquency may be a way of reflecting home conflicts for which parents or some aspect of the environment is responsible.

In this chapter, several studies will be utilized in an attempt to delineate the categories into which many social-personal problems fall. It is hoped that through a greater understanding of these categories, a keener insight may be gained for making evaluations in this area.

Within the home, important problems for high school youngsters include:

1. Marital mal-adjustment in parents.
2. Economic worries.
3. Parental absence from the home.
4. Chronic illness in the home.

5. Fatigue on the part of parents.
6. Family habits which cause embarrassment.
7. Presence of older relatives in the home.
8. Conflicts over discipline.
9. Parental attempts to relive thwarted ambitions or to pass unsolved problems to the child.
10. Parental attempts to force outmoded standards upon the youth.
11. Absence of parental practice of rules forced upon the child.<sup>44</sup>

The more general atmosphere of the home also has a tremendous influence upon the adjustment of the child. Home atmospheres might be classified as to whether they are authoritarian, "laissez faire," or democratic. Within the authoritarian home the child is considered a miniature adult. Therefore, he is expected to behave in an adult manner. This system is sometimes implemented by a vast array of rewards and punishments. The unfavorable outcomes of such treatment may include nervous and/or inhibited behavior, decreased maturity, and resentment on the part of the child.

The laissez faire concept pictures the child as an average, able adult. Goals, however, are not clearly defined. Trial and error, hard knocks, and frustration gradually mold a "bag of tricks" philosophy. Children reared in the laissez faire environment are especially fearful of structured situations. Aggressive acts frequently result as a defense for their feelings of inadequacy.<sup>45</sup>

Perhaps the democratic concept of child rearing unites the positive

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<sup>44</sup>Farwell and Peters, op. cit., pp. 316-320.

<sup>45</sup>Robbins, op. cit., pp. 117-125.

aspects of the laissez faire and the authoritarian. Here, the child is considered a growing, developing and outreaching organism. This may be the best way of engendering within children a respect for and ability to meet problems.

Providing the children with the attention needed for the widely differing personalities which they bring to school is indeed a problem. A study conducted in Wisconsin, in which 370 students were used, seems to throw specific light upon the influences of the family environment. Following is a list of the conclusions which were drawn from the study:

- I. Influence of social and religious attitudes of families.
  - A. Some parents insisted that training be taken in sectarian schools.
  - B. Parents sometimes interfered with courtship and marriage plans.
  - C. Parents who had been financially successful wanted their children to reflect their own achievements.
  - D. Some parents made it very clear to their children that they did not trust them.
  - E. Sometimes parents disagreed on disciplinary or regulatory matters.
  - F. Occasionally, an only girl was expected to do the work that a son might have been expected to do.
- II. Influence of parental attitudes toward youth.
  - A. One or both parents were sometimes over solicitious about their child's progress.
  - B. Some parents neglected their offspring.
  - C. Some parents participated in the recreational, academic, or vocational interests of their children.
- III. Influence of parents' attitudes toward youth.
  - A. Some parents insisted that their children enter the same occupations in which they were presently or formerly engaged.
  - B. Some parents attempted to dissuade their children from entering their occupations.
  - C. Mothers and fathers sometimes disagreed about the wisdom of an occupational choice.
  - D. Some fathers provided special incentives to their children to get them to enter their occupations.
  - E. Strong father-son relationships sometimes brought subtle pressures on the son to enter the fathers' occupations.

#### IV. Influence of parents' attitudes toward education.

- A. Some parents were willing to finance past high school training for sons, but not for daughters.
- B. Some parents refused to finance education for their sons or daughters because they saw no value in education.
- C. In some cases parents decided that at least one child should go on for higher education and the pressure was on him.
- D. Some parents insisted that children take the same training at the same institution they had attended.
- E. Some parents insisted that children should not take the same kind of training they had taken.
- F. Some parents disagreed seriously about the kind of training their sons and daughters should take after high school.
- G. Some parents applied punishments or rewards in attempts to get their children to do well in school.
- H. A few parents went to ridiculous and embarrassing ends to assure their children's success in school.
- I. Some parents publicly criticized school practice and personnel and consequently created a conflict for their children.

#### V. Influence of location and mobility of homes.

- A. Some homes were attached to places of business; this caused distractions and temptations.
- B. Location of family homes seemed to influence some youths' choice of activities, occupations, and training.
- C. Families that frequently moved caused problems for their children.
- D. Some farm homes were located far from the school.

#### VI. Influence of siblings.

- A. A youth's plans were often influenced by his older sibling's experiences in employment, training, army, or marriage.
- B. The presence of an older sibling in the home sometimes affected the future of the youth.
- C. Illness of a sibling sometimes influenced a youth's plans.
- D. The presence of accelerated or retarded siblings in the same grade or classes affected achievements and competition.
- E. The behavior and performance of younger siblings were sometimes appreciated more than of older children.

#### VII. Miscellaneous influences of family situations.

- A. The occupation of a parent made the child overly concerned about "correct" behavior. A student sometimes thought he could get by because of his preferred status.
- B. Some children of former teachers felt that their parents were overly concerned about their grades and performance.
- C. Some youths, whose parents were convicted of criminal activities, met problems of maintaining face.
- D. Some parents failed to challenge their children.



- E. Family names sometimes caused embarrassment.
- F. Difficulties at the home made some youths reject their parents. One boy resented his father's immoral behavior so much that he registered at a university under an assumed name.<sup>46</sup>

Needless to say, influences will come in innumerable combinations. Depending upon the situation, they may have either a favorable or unfavorable effect. Within the same 870 student study, there were general findings which indicate possible effects of the family influences. Some students were found to be extremely shy and withdrawn. Others were concerned about their lack of status while some were unconcerned. Students were divided as to whether they were or were not willing to seek help regarding problems. Many students were excessively anxious to participate in activities, but others showed more concern about appearance and grooming. Rural people often found it hard to become assimilated to the city high school. Many bright students who could have gotten high grades avoided doing so because they did not wish to be called "greasy grinds." Depending on how their physical maturation impressed their peers, students were sometimes ostracized or showered with popularity.<sup>47</sup>

At Purdue University a study was administered to a group of high school students in an attempt to find out what they felt their problems were. The number one problem was that they wanted people to like them more. The majority of teenagers wanted to improve appearance, have more dates, more friends, more popularity, get rid of stage fright, and to gain self-confidence. To 38% of them, the worst calamity was to have been considered an odd ball. One problem seems to transcend all

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<sup>46</sup> John W. M. Rothney, Guidance Practices and Results (New York: Harper and Bros., 1958), pp. 13-20.

<sup>47</sup> Ibid., pp. 10-11.

others: regardless of age or social class, teenagers tend to conform and their greatest concern is over whether or they are liked. Only one fourth report frequent disagreement with group opinion. About three fourths of the students rank "learning how to get along with people" as the most important thing they can learn in school. Moreover, 60% would rather be popular than brilliant; 51% believe low grades are more influential in popularity than high grades. In getting a job, 71% feel personality counts more than grades.<sup>48</sup>

In an attempt to condense the general findings of the studies described, along with others, the general conclusions of a study by Arthur W. Combs, Junior will be employed. Students numbering 1,565 in Alliance, Ohio were given the Mooney check list. According to Combs, most problems faced by the average high school youngster are a direct outgrowth, in nearly every instance, of the social pressures to which he is exposed. Problems most predominant fall in the areas of heterosexual adjustment, social adjustment, personality, school adjustment, and concern over the future. The average high school did not seem to be supplying the child with enough proper opportunities for social and heterosexual adjustment.<sup>49</sup>

Regarding his future, the average child showed more concern over his general future than over whether or not to go to college, vocational school, etc. Many problems appeared to be subject to fairly simple treatment and could be remedied by changes in school procedure.

It would be well to say that, in the area of social-personal

<sup>48</sup>Farwell and Peters, op. cit., pp. 320-328.

<sup>49</sup>Mathewson, op. cit., pp. 53-54.

difficulties, problems come in innumerable combinations, causes are multiple, and that the remedy will vary with the student and the student-counselor relationship involved.

## CHAPTER VI

### THE SURVEY

#### Introductory Remarks

The concept of a survey which would be integrated into the final stages of this paper could not be realized until the research on the first five chapters was complete. From the research, which discussed both the objectives of guidance and current sociological phenomena, it was reasoned that certain problems would result for guidance.

Objectives of guidance and the importance of sociological phenomena in their achievement were analyzed. The economic structure of the United States was examined; differences in social class background as a result of inequality were enumerated, along with social-personal problems stemming from family and other influences.

Within the social milieu, created by the amalgamation of social forces which makes up our society, guidance programs must work toward their aims. From out of these sociological phenomena may be chosen factors which would be beneficial to a guidance program, ones which would be indifferent, and ones which would be detrimental. From these phenomena, certain problems were hypothesized as it was felt that they would result from the detrimental factors.

Out of the numerous problem points in this dimension, certain areas were chosen for questioning. After much deliberation as to which queries would be most perceptive in the investigation, a set of questions

was finally developed. The questions were not based upon previous questionnaires of other studies, but were built around the hypothetical problems arrived at by the writer through analysis of social, economic, cultural, and psychological information. The entire questionnaire, along with the responses, is included in Appendix B.

Personal interviews were used to communicate the questionnaire to twelve Eastern Illinois-Western Indiana guidance counselors. A table listing the schools involved, their sizes, and their locations is given in Appendix A. Of the twelve schools in which counselors were contacted, nine are located in urban communities. Two of the nine urban schools draw a large percentage of their students from families of above average income. The remaining three schools would be classified as rural. No attempt will be made to differentiate responses as to whether or not they came from rural or urban communities. Responses were, however, analyzed with this in mind, but no recognizable pattern could be delineated.

Problems centered in the following categories: (1) improper rearing; (2) material inequality among families; (3) teacher prejudices; (4) geographical location of the home. Improper rearing was defined as any action or inaction on the part of parents which tended to hinder their children's success in school. Material inequality among families refers to the great variance in income and resources which exists among the families of public school students. Teacher prejudice was defined as any action or inaction on the part of teachers which tended to hinder the school success of a particular class of children. Within the heading of geographical location of the home was studied any problem which resulted from the unfavorable location of the home.

Improper RearingUnder-achievement as a criterion

For the high school student, it was felt that problems might result from the sometimes detrimental influence of the family. Therefore, improper rearing was chosen as a category which might be responsible for many problems. Under-achievement was chosen as a criterion upon which the influence of improper rearing might be assessed. Under-achievement was defined as making grades which averaged lower than that which the student is capable of making. The following question was asked: what percentage of your students are receiving grades which average not more than one grade lower than that which they are capable of achieving? Two of the twelve counselors replied 10%, seven replied 10-20%, two replied 20-40%, and one indicated over 80%. They were then asked what percentage of their students were averaging two or more grades below that which they were capable of earning. The counselors replied as follows: 10% or less--10; 10-20%--1; and over 80%--1. Having identified a sizable proportion of students as under-achievers, the criterion had apparently been a good one.

Lack of encouragement from home as a factor

The next step was the determination of whether or not lack of encouragement from home, as a form of improper rearing, was a major factor in the under-achievement. Encouragement from home was defined as an active interest and concern on the part of parents or guardians regarding their child's success in school. In answer to this question, eight counselors replied that they felt 40-80% of their cases of

~~under-achievement~~ could be attributed to this factor. Of the other responses, one indicated 10% or less, while 10-20% and over 80% were each indicated by one counselor. One counselor felt that encouragement was not a factor, but rather the encouragement should be reinforced with insistence that the desired goals be worked toward. Prevalent in at least three counseling situations was a feeling that material over-indulgence was a major factor in ~~under-achievement~~. The student already had so many advantages that he could see no gains in working harder. Two counselors felt that some ~~under-achieved~~ because, within their cliques, one is ostracized as an "apple polisher" if he attempts to make high grades. Popularity with one's peer group is greatly important at the high school level. Depending upon the group with which one identifies, this could be a valid judgement. Lack of encouragement from home would appear to be a key factor in ~~under-achievement~~. Though some counselors would not point to lack of encouragement as the specific factor, there was general agreement that if more interest were shown at home, there would be less ~~under-achievement~~.

#### Social isolation as a criterion

To test the influence of improper rearing, social isolates were chosen as the next criterion. A social isolate was defined as one who, from all that the counselor could observe, had only one friend. All twelve counselors classified 10% or less of their students as social isolates.

#### Influence of parental mistakes

Mistakes on the part of parents were considered a form of improper

rearing. Mistakes were defined as unfavorable rearing procedures employed by parents who were really trying to do a good job. When asked what percentage of those classified as social isolates were the result of mistakes in the rearing procedure by conscientious parents, the results were as follows: less than 10%--6; 20-40%--1; 40-80%--4; and over 80%--1. In general, this revealed that half those interviewed believed a sizable proportion of their isolates to have been a result of mistakes on the part of parents. The other half, however, felt this affected only 10% or less of their students. The latter impressions notwithstanding, implications may exist here for increased dissemination of information regarding child psychology.

#### Influence of parental indifference

Parental indifference was also considered a form of improper rearing. Indifference was defined as an apparent lack of interest or feeling in parents regarding whether or not their children succeeded in school. Counselors were asked what percentage of their isolates were the result of indifference on the part of parents. Here is how they replied: less than 10%--5; 40-80%--6; and over 80%--1. Here again, a division of opinion occurred in that seven counselors believed that a sizable proportion of their isolates were a result of indifference, while the other five saw few of their isolates as the products of parental indifference. Three counselors believed isolates to be a natural result of parental isolation. Thus, if parents had few contacts outside the home, they felt that the children would have little inclination to make social contacts. Low income in the family was mentioned once as a factor. Children lacked confidence, the counselor stated, because of all the disadvantages which low income fosters. In a rural school, the



counselor believed the problem was cultural. That is, the cultural background in some farm homes was such as to not provide the necessary background from which good relations within the school could develop. In a metropolitan school, which had recently taken in students from smaller schools which were consolidated, the counselor believed that parental resistance to consolidation restricted the social lives of their children. A Terre Haute, Indiana counselor intimated that low income caused children to be poorly dressed and therefore self-conscious and anti-social. Physical appearance, he believed, was a detriment to social development of many students.

A unique opinion expressed the idea that much of the poor adjustment was not due to mistakes or indifference, as defined earlier, but to circumstances. Cited was the example of one mother who failed to keep her high achieving son in school. From the time the boy was very small, the boy's parents had been divorced and the mother had worked since then to support the two of them. After talking to the boy, the counselor found that, throughout his life, he had never been able to get his mother's attention long enough to talk over a problem with her. Ultimately, an arrangement was worked out whereby the boy was sent to his grandparent's home and was able to achieve a favorable adjustment there. No mistake or indifference necessarily existed on the part of the mother. Having been tired from domestic and occupational duties, she needed sufficient rest if she were going to maintain the living. Either the living or the son had to be sacrificed; the son's attention could be more readily sacrificed at the time.

In summary, findings indicate that half the counselors interviewed believed mistakes and/or indifference were causative factors in

a large percentage of their social isolates.

Education beyond high school as a criterion

Considering the importance of education in securing employment in our society, concern was given to whether or not all those qualified for advanced training beyond high school were taking advantage of their capabilities. Advanced training, as used herein, refers to training taken in universities, technical schools, beauth schools, business colleges, and the like.

Counselors were questioned as to how many of their graduates who were capable of going on for some kind of advanced training beyond high school were not doing so. Of the twelve replies, five responded with 10% or less; four indicated 10-20%; two replied 20-40%; and one estimated 40-80%. Initially, these percentages may seem small; however, closer examination reveals that seven of the estimates ranged from more than 10% to 80%.

A second dimension is thus added to an already complicated problem. Not only will those incapable of more training be entering the labor force immediately, but, in addition, those capable of continuing but not doing so will also be immediate job hunters. Through greater automation and technological changes, increasing numbers of both groups may enter the ranks of the unemployed. Ways must be found by which these young people can be trained to meet the changing demands of society. In fact, these estimates may really be lower than those which would be achieved in a larger sample, as five of the schools interviewed were located in cities where state universities were readily accessible.

In one instance, indications of the possible yields of investments

in education were available. The counselor was in the process of looking several years in retrospect at those people who had continued their education in nursing or business schools. Preliminary results revealed that the vast majority of them were employed in their chosen field at the end of the training period.

#### Lack of encouragement from home as a factor

At this point, counselors were again questioned regarding home encouragement. What percentage of their capable graduates would have been motivated to further education had home encouragement been greater? Of the twelve counselors, ten replied and did so as follows: 10% or less--2; 10-20%--1; 20-40%--1; 40-80%--4; and over 80%--2. Over half the counselors replying felt that greater encouragement from home would have motivated a great percentage of their graduates to enter advanced and/or specialized educational programs. Our society may be in need of some type of parental orientation program emphasizing the importance of specialized training in getting and holding a position.

#### Lack of finances as a limitation

Technically, the next question should probably fall under the heading of "material inequality among families." However, since the questions centers around the problem of training beyond high school, now in the process of discussion, it is included here. The question concerns finances for future education. What percentage of those capable of continuing their education beyond high school were prevented from doing so because of insufficient funds? Counselors had this to say: 10% or less--4; 20-40%--2; 40-80%--4; and over 80%--1. More than half believed a sizable proportion of their graduates could not secure sufficient

finances to continue their education. Though many loan and scholarship funds exist, they have apparently not reached all the high school graduates who might desire them.

One counselor expressed the opinion that many students who would give lack of finances as the reason why they would not go on were simply not willing to make the material sacrifices necessary for attending college. He pointed to the increasing number of automobiles on college campuses as an example of how the increased standard of living has been accepted as a must--even at the university.

Counselors in cities in which state universities were located indicated that many of their college bound people would attend out-of-town schools, rather than the local university, if more funds were available to them. An interesting trend seems to be developing in the cities which contain state universities. So many home town scholars are attending the local university, that attendance at the local school is beginning to be thought of as basic for many of them. In one city, basic social status among peers is attained by attending the local university. This is only a prerequisite, as real status is attained by going to an out-of-town school. As one counselor stated: "You're nothing if you don't at least attend state, but the really 'cool' thing to do is to go out of town or out of state to college." Though this natural stratification might be frowned upon by some, it is encouraging to see that attendance at "some" college is a must for an increasing proportion of high school graduates.

#### Importance of personal choice

Counselors were also asked how many graduates decided against

more training through personal choice, even though resources and encouragement were there. They gave the following estimates: 10% or less--4; 10-20%--1; 20-40%--2; 40-80%--2; three answered none.

In short, many counselors believed that improvement of parental practices would create vast improvements in student attitudes.

### Material Inequality Among Families

Throughout this paper, the writer has viewed the inequality fostered by our economic system as a detriment to the maximum growth of society as a whole. This section of the questionnaire was an attempt to test the influence of material inequality among families.

### Under-achievement as a criterion

The earlier definition given for under-achievement will also apply here. Counselors were asked what percentage of their under-achievers came from families whose incomes are less than that which is required to sustain the minimum decent standard of living in their communities. Results of this question were as follows: 10% or less--5; 10-20%--1; 20-40%--1; and 40-80%--5. Two of the schools in the survey drew from above average income groups, so their percentages were low. However, five counselors felt that 40-80% of their under-achieving students came from low income families. In all probability, none of the communities in the survey would have had more than one fifth whose incomes were below the bare minimum. This means that, in the opinion of five counselors, 20% of the population in their communities was contributing 40-80% of the under-achievers. In the writers opinion, if this finding were substantiated in a more comprehensive study, it might imply that a change of curriculum would be in order, or that

specialized training in the lower class way of life would be needed for personnel handling these people. Interestingly, three counselors believed that many of their high-income-family students were under-achieving.

#### Reason for under-achievement

Next, an attempt was made to get at the reason for the high percentage of under-achievers which had been found in the low income families. Counselors were asked what percentage of their under-achieving students who came from low income families were doing so simply as a result of the feeling that their situation was so unfavorable that it could not be improved. The writer was attempting to find out whether or not individuals who had never known anything but poverty would be restricted in their hopes for improving their situations. Three counselors showed little perception of the insight which the question was attempting to elude. However, the other nine counselors answered as follows: 10% or less--1; 10-20%--1; 40-80%--2; and over 80%--5. Thus, seven of the nine counselors who responded believed that the condition of "inherited poverty" of the low income groups, which was discussed in Chapter III, was extremely discouraging for them. No solution seems apparent, but attention is greatly needed for all children coming from the lower economic fifth of the population.

Counselors were asked how many of those indicated in the previous question would improve their performance if a way were found whereby they could be shown the advantages of educational success. Answers were as follows: 10% or less--1; 40-80%--1; and over 80%--7. This would imply that research is needed to find out more about the culture of this

income group and what may be done to influence their attitudes toward education.

### Behavior as a criterion

Counselors were asked what percentage of their students presented serious behavior problems to the community and its law enforcement officers. A behavior problem was defined as something more serious than a minor traffic violation. The twelve responses fell in the category of 1-5%.

### Rejection as the cause of behavior problems

They were then asked what percentage of the students whom they considered behavior problems were rejected by their more popular peers before getting into trouble. A student was said to have been rejected if he had attempted to gain acceptance with a group of peers and they had not allowed him to do so. The ten counselors who responded to the question indicated the following: 10% or less--2; 10-20%--1; 20-40%--1; 40-60%--2; and over 60%--4. This would indicate that, in the opinion of half the counselors interviewed, a large proportion of students who get into trouble do so after making attempts to secure entrance into certain cliques within the school. The school social structure is apparently a detriment to many students who attempt to gain acceptance. This percentage of rejection might have been higher had counselors been asked to include rejection which they believed to have occurred in grade school. Several volunteered this information.

### Rejection based upon insufficient finances

Because of the tremendous variance in incomes among communities,

it was felt that many cases of social rejection might have been based upon a student's lack of funds. Counselors were asked this question: "In what percentage of the cases of rejection do you feel that a lack of funds with which to finance the social necessities was a causative factor?" The nine counselors who responded indicated the following: 10% or less--6; 10-20%--1; and 40-80%--2. Thus, no general agreement existed regarding social rejection based on lack of funds. However, one counselor emphasized the hidden costs in his school which he felt might run as high as \$25 per year. An interesting anecdote regarding a dress-up day in school came from one counselor. During the day which preceded the dress-up day twenty students were absent. But on the dress-up day eighty-five students were absent. The statistics speak for themselves in this case.

In essence, it can only be concluded that, in the opinion of the counselors who were interviewed, finances did not seem to play a great part in the social rejection of students. It is the writer's opinion, however, that one tends to be overly influenced by outstanding people who have succeeded in transcending a deprived environment; but it does not automatically follow that the vast majority of low-income-family children are not restricted by existing conditions. Social rejection, however, seemed to play a part in certain children having become behavior problems.

#### Provision of activity program

Within the framework of material inequality, concern was given to the activity programs and whether or not they provided adequately for all students. Counselors were first questioned as to how they believed



their activity programs provided for the needs of the students from the average and above average income families. An activity program was assumed to be providing for the needs of a group if they readily volunteered to participate in it. The question was phrased in such a way that counselors were merely to rate their programs as they compared with other similar schools. The hope was, of course, that counselors would volunteer their opinions as to what should be provided if they were dissatisfied with what was already provided. The rating scale was "excellent," "good," "average," "below average," and "seriously inadequate." Regarding provisions for the average and above average income students, counselors answered "excellent" in three instances, "good" in six instances, and "average" in three instances.

When asked how their programs of activities provided for the students from the low income families, they replied "excellent"-once, "good"-four times, "average"-six times, and "below average"-once. Counselors had the tendency to rate activity programs lower in the way in which they provided for the low income students. Moreover, ten of the twelve counselors volunteered information centered upon the idea that other activities were needed for the low income students. One counselor believed that low income students, for various reasons, lacked the confidence to attempt participation. All counselors had the tendency to describe outstanding individuals who had been able to transcend their environments and attain success. This would at least indicate that some opportunity exists for even the most underprivileged. It does not necessarily follow, however, that such programs are adequate. Some schools might find it helpful to examine closely the way in which their activity programs are providing for the various groups within the school. In brief, five-sixths

of all counselors interviewed believed that different activity programs were needed to fill the needs of the low income students.

### Faculty Prejudice

The majority of teachers are believed to have come from lower-middle class families. After having entered the field of education, and having later become firmly entrenched in a higher position in the middle class, the question arose as to whether or not teachers would show harmful prejudice toward the lower class children. Therefore, counselors were asked to rate their faculties as a whole regarding the amount of prejudice shown toward children from the low income families. Prejudice was defined as action or inaction on the part of the teacher which hindered the student in attaining success in school. Counselors were to rate their faculties as "extremely fair," "fair," "slightly prejudiced," or "extremely prejudiced." "Extremely fair" was the rating given by three counselors, five counselors replied "fair," three counselors replied "slightly prejudiced," and one counselor replied "extremely prejudiced." Counselors rating their faculties as "fair" or "extremely fair" commented that there were certain exceptions to their ratings. With one-third of the counselors rating their faculties as "slightly prejudiced" or "extremely prejudiced," while the other two-thirds indicated exceptions to their "fair" ratings, it would seem that this is an area which needs continued study. If carried to extremes in a school, such prejudices may hinder the optimum development of many students. Perhaps teacher training institutions should require certain courses which emphasize sociological problems, or should insist that required courses be taught in such a way that the same end will be achieved. In the writer's opinion, the initial step might be that of creating an increased awareness on

the part of teachers as to the existence of these problems.

### Geographic Location of Homes

The final portion of the survey was designed to determine whether or not the geographic area in which a student lived had any influence upon his ability to socialize with the rest of the students. It was assumed that if a student encountered social difficulties which were beyond his control it would tend to hinder his performance in others areas of education. Counselors were asked this question: "From the standpoint of social acceptability, do you feel that some parts of your district are more desirable places in which to live than others?" Eleven of the twelve counselors answered with an emphatic "yes."

A second question was called for--"What percentage of your students who come from the undesirable areas are socially rejected by those who live in the desirable parts of the district?" Of the eleven counselors who agreed that some areas were more desirable than others, three believed 10% or less were rejected socially for this reason; four counselors responded with 10-20%; and four more responded with 40-80%. Apparently a sizable proportion of students have an initial advantage or disadvantage depending upon where they live. The vast majority of these students need help and explanation in overcoming these disadvantages.

### Conclusions

With such a small number of cases, validity of some inferences in this survey is questionable. However, certain sociological phenomena have shown themselves as areas where intensive study might prove highly fruitful.

Most of the inferences resulting from the survey have been stated earlier. However, solutions to the problems are far from equally clear. For example, within the area of improper rearing, many needs, such as that of more encouragement and interest from home, were found to exist. A need for more education in the area of methods of rearing may also exist. But to attempt an adult education program in this area would be highly presumptuous. Secondly, though some means of rearing are recognized as questionable, no agreement exists as to what the correct procedure should entail. However, counselors who recognize such needs may be able to communicate with parents in an attempt to improve rearing practices.

From the area of material inequality among families, many problems have resulted for students. Herein can be found a special need for communication of values regarding education to the lowest economic fifth of the population. It is difficult for a student to achieve success in school if his parents have failed to engender within him a respect for the value of education.

Before reprimanding children for not conforming to the school's value system, some teachers may need to try to gain a greater understanding of the children involved. The value system encountered by the child when he is in school is often diametrically opposed to the social realities of his home. According to counselors, many faculty members need to go further in their efforts to aid the child who comes from the lowest economic fifth of the population. The lowest fifth was described at some length in Chapter III. In addition, the lower fifth is not taking advantage of existing activity programs. Attention may need to be focused on revamping activity programs to provide for more special needs. Teacher training institutions may be able to help eliminate these problems through

making their graduates increasingly aware of the needs in these areas.

Salary raises, increased budgets, and building programs will facilitate improvements in the schools. However, zest for such improvements must be sparked by the hopes and ambitions of the people who administer the programs.

The writer realizes that it is less troublesome to state the problem than to supply an answer. However, it is hoped that information which has been revealed will stimulate others toward research in the areas emphasized. Like many other papers, this one ends with a group of questions to ponder rather than certainties to reassure.

## APPENDIX A

Schools Included in Survey

<u>School</u>	<u>Size</u>	<u>Location</u>
Eisenhower High School	1200	Decatur, Illinois
Lakeview High School	625	Decatur, Illinois
MacArthur High School	1550	Decatur, Illinois
Stephen Decatur High School	1300	Decatur, Illinois
Charleston High School	780	Charleston, Illinois
Mattoon High School	1150	Mattoon, Illinois
Monticello High School	400	Monticello, Illinois
Urbana High School	900	Urbana, Illinois
Windsor High School	186	Windsor, Illinois
Garfield High School	870	Terre Haute, Indiana
Gerstaefer Technical High School	970	Terre Haute, Indiana
Wiley High School	1110	Terre Haute, Indiana

## APPENDIX B

Survey Questions

I. An under-achiever, according to the writer's definition, is a student who is not working to within a reasonable degree of his mental capacity.

A. How many of your students are receiving grades which average not more than one grade lower than that which they are capable of achieving?

<u>less than 10%</u>	<u>10-20%</u>	<u>20-40%</u>	<u>40-80%</u>	<u>over 80%</u>
2	7	2		1

B. How many of your students are receiving grades which average two or more grades lower than that which they are capable of achieving?

<u>less than 10%</u>	<u>10-20%</u>	<u>20-40%</u>	<u>40-80%</u>	<u>over 80%</u>
10	1		1	

C. In what percentage of cases do you feel that their under-achievement could be attributed to a lack of encouragement from home?

<u>less than 10%</u>	<u>10-20%</u>	<u>20-40%</u>	<u>40-80%</u>	<u>over 80%</u>
2	1		8	1

D. In what percentage of cases do you feel that lack of encouragement was not a factor and that the under-achievement could be attributed to personal choice or other factors?

<u>less than 10%</u>	<u>10-20%</u>	<u>20-40%</u>	<u>40-80%</u>	<u>over 80%</u>
1	2	3	4	2

II. I shall use the term social isolate in reference to the student who has achieved only one friendship in school.

A. What percentage of your students would you classify as social isolates?

<u>less than 10%</u>	<u>10-20%</u>	<u>20-40%</u>	<u>40-80%</u>	<u>over 80%</u>
12				

B. What percentage of these isolates do you feel were the result of mistakes in the rearing procedure by conscientious parents?

<u>less than 10%</u>	<u>10-20%</u>	<u>20-40%</u>	<u>40-80%</u>	<u>over 80%</u>
6		1	4	1

C. What percentage of these isolates do you believe were the result of indifference in the rearing procedure?

<u>less than 10%</u>	<u>10-20%</u>	<u>20-40%</u>	<u>40-80%</u>	<u>over 80%</u>
5			6	1

III. What percentage of your graduates are scholastically capable of going on for some advanced training beyond high school, but are not doing so?

<u>less than 10%</u>	<u>10-20%</u>	<u>20-40%</u>	<u>40-80%</u>	<u>over 80%</u>
5	4	2	1	

A. In what percentage of these cases do you feel that greater encouragement from home would have motivated them to further education?

<u>less than 10%</u>	<u>10-20%</u>	<u>20-40%</u>	<u>40-80%</u>	<u>over 80%</u>
2	1	1	4	2

B. In what percentage of cases do you feel that the lack of finances prevented them from going on?

<u>less than 10%</u>	<u>10-20%</u>	<u>20-40%</u>	<u>40-80%</u>	<u>over 80%</u>
4		2	4	1

C. In what percentage of cases would you attribute it to a lack of desire even though encouragement and resources were available?

<u>less than 10%</u>	<u>10-20%</u>	<u>20-40%</u>	<u>40-80%</u>	<u>over 80%</u>
4	1	2	2	

IV. What percentage of those students which you have listed as under-achievers come from families whose incomes are less than that which is required to provide the minimum decent standard of living in your community?

<u>less than 10%</u>	<u>10-20%</u>	<u>20-40%</u>	<u>40-80%</u>	<u>over 80%</u>
5	1	1	5	

A. Of these, what percentage do you feel are doing so simply as a result of the feeling that their situation is so unfavorable that it cannot be improved?

<u>less than 10%</u>	<u>10-20%</u>	<u>20-40%</u>	<u>40-80%</u>	<u>over 80%</u>
1	1		2	5



B. If those in IV-A above, what percentage do you feel would improve their performance greatly if some way were found by which they could be shown the advantages of educational success?

<u>less than 10%</u>	<u>10-20%</u>	<u>20-40%</u>	<u>40-80%</u>	<u>over 80%</u>
1			1	7

V. What percentage of your students present serious behavior problems to the community and its law enforcement officers?

<u>less than 10%</u>	<u>10-20%</u>	<u>20-40%</u>	<u>40-80%</u>	<u>over 80%</u>
12				

A. Of these, how many do you feel were rejected by their more popular peers before getting into trouble?

<u>less than 10%</u>	<u>10-20%</u>	<u>20-40%</u>	<u>40-80%</u>	<u>over 80%</u>
2	1	1	2	4

B. In what percentage of these cases of rejection listed in A above do you feel a lack of funds with which to finance the social necessities was a causative factor?

<u>less than 10%</u>	<u>10-20%</u>	<u>20-40%</u>	<u>40-80%</u>	<u>over 80%</u>
6	1		2	

VI. How would you rate your school's activity program as it provides for the needs of the average and above average income family students?

<u>excellent</u>	<u>good</u>	<u>average</u>	<u>below average</u>	<u>seriously inadequate</u>
3	6	3		

How would you rate your school's activity program as it provides for the needs of the students of the low income families?

<u>excellent</u>	<u>good</u>	<u>average</u>	<u>below average</u>	<u>seriously inadequate</u>
1	4	6	1	

VII. How would you rate your faculty, as a whole, in regard to the amount of harmful prejudice which they express toward those children who come from the low income groups?

<u>extremely fair</u>	<u>fair</u>	<u>slightly prejudiced</u>	<u>extremely prejudiced</u>
3	5	3	1

VIII. From the standpoint of social acceptability, do you feel that some locations in your district are more desirable places to live than others?

yes  
11

no  
1

What percentage of your students who come from undesirable areas are socially rejected by those who live in the desirable parts of the area?

less than 10%  
3

10-20%  
4

20-40%

40-80%  
4

over 80%

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